

Audio-Visual VQ Shot Clustering for Video Programs

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Abstract. Many post-production video documents such as movies, sitcoms and cartoons present well structured story-lines organized in separated audio-visual scenes. Accurate grouping of shots into these logical video segments could lead to semantic indexing of scenes and events for interactive multimedia retrieval. In this paper we introduce a novel shot-based analysis approach which aims to cluster together shots with similar audio-visual content. We demonstrate how the use of codebooks of audio and visual codewords (generated by a vector quantization process) results to be an effective method to represent clusters containing shots with similar long-term consistency of chromatic compositions and audio. The output clusters obtained by a simple *single-link* clustering algorithm, allow the further application of the well-known *scene transition* graph framework for scene change detection and shot-pattern investigation. In the end the merging of audio and visual results leads to a hierarchical description of the whole video document, useful for multimedia retrieval and summarization purposes.

1 Introduction

With the advances in multimedia techniques and the convergence of network technologies, we are experiencing a rapid increase in the amount of data coming from heterogeneous digital media sources. Performing a manual search for a piece of desired content from huge amounts of unorganized media data is a time consuming and laborious task for a human user, so algorithms and tools that enable automated analysis of large digital multimedia database are becoming more and more indispensable; still achieving semantic understanding, especially of images and videos, remains a not trivial task. This issue is known in literature as the *semantic gap* problem [2]: the retrieval queries are normally formulated at a higher level in line with the human concept of understanding the media content. In contrast, the analysis of a video is feasible at the algorithmic level in terms of analyzing low-level features. The problem of bridging the gap between such cognitive level queries and a suitable system-level feature set and related methods remains a difficult research challenge [7].

Considering video content analysis, the detection of shot boundaries (which identify segments filmed in a single camera take, [5]) is still considered a prior

step towards content-based indexing, browsing and summarization. Most of the existing video summarization techniques use key-frames extracted from such shots by means of their associated low-level audiovisual features [6]. A collection of such information provides a compact representation of a given video sequence, useful for video applications such as browsing, database retrieval and automatic generation of summaries and skims (dynamic summaries) [9]. Still considering that there are usually more than one thousand key-frames for an hour long video, it is impractical to check all these images to get a rough idea of its content. Therefore it is clear that the research on video-segmentation must be carried out at a higher level of abstraction with respect to a shot-based decomposition: efforts has to be directed towards grouping shots together into "scenes", normally defined as a sequence of shots that share a common semantic thread.

1.1 Related Works

Some methods dealing with automatic high-level movie segmentation are reported in literature. In [20], [21], [22] and [23] some approaches based on a time-constrained clustering are presented. In [20] interesting results are given, measuring visual similarity between shots by means of color or pixel correlation between key frames, followed by applying predefined memory models for recognizing patterns inside the story. However, in this case the choice of a predefined interval (in frames) places an artificial limit on the duration of an episode. Another approach can be found in [6] where the *Logical Story Units (LSU)* are introduced as "*a series of temporally contiguous shots, characterized by overlapping links that connect shots with similar visual content element*" [7] and the dissimilarity between shots is examined by estimating correlations between k-frames block matching. One last group of algorithms derives a method for measuring probable scene boundaries by calculating a short term memory-based model of shot-to-shot "*coherence*", as in [8] and [17].

Over the last few years more and more research efforts have been seen in using audio [10] and mixing audio-visual information to detect scene boundaries (see [14], [16], [3] and [15]). However, how to combine audio and visual information efficiently remains a difficult issue, since there are seemingly many different relationships due to the video genre variety and styles of program making. In [16] the authors have used a finite memory model to segment the audio and video data into scenes, respectively, and then applied sliding windows to merge audio and video scene results. In [3] an audio assisted scene segmentation technique was proposed that uses audio information to remove false boundaries generated from visual scene segmentation. Other authors [15] focused first on object tracking method for visual segmentation, then analyzed audio features based on the detected video shots, without concerning what the content of the audio data actually is.

1.2 Aim of the Work and Paper Organization

This work presents a novel and effective method to group shots into *logical story units (LSU)* starting from an *MPEG-1* video stream, using a shot-to-shot dissimilarity measure based on vector quantization (*VQ*) codebooks of visual and audio codewords. We demonstrate how these codebooks can be also extended to effectively represent clusters of shots, so evaluating cluster-to-shot and cluster-to-cluster dissimilarity. This clustering of basic video segments into compact structures can be helpful for further processing and content analysis purposes. In fact, starting from the so obtained clustered shots and by analyzing the transitions between clusters using already proposed methods such as the *scene transition graphs* [20], it is possible to find out the fundamental elements of the semantic structure (*LSU*), the story line developing, and eventually recognize patterns (such as dialogue, audio hints, etc.) and repeats (visually similar shots or events not local in time) all along the video. In this work we deal with a wide range of highly-structured programs, such as feature movies, sitcoms and cartoons, for which is quite reasonable to assume the presence of repetitive or at least similar shot structures along the video sequence.

The paper is organized as follows. In the next section an overview of the proposed system is given. Section 3 discusses visual information processing modules for shot-based visual scene detection, including the use of *Vector Quantization* codebook for visual content representation of a shot, an effective clustering approach [13] for grouping together visually similar shots, and the use of the *Scene Transition Graph (STG)* framework to detect *logical story units*. In Section 5 an audio signal processing approach to audio scene detection is presented. In section 5 the idea is described how audio results can assist video semantic analysis. Finally, in Sections 6 and 7 the experimental results and conclusions are presented, respectively.

2 System Overview

The proposed system, shown in Figure 1, comprises two separate and parallel sub-systems, one for visual content clustering process and the other one for audio clustering. After the video decomposition into shots, video content is represented by means of *Vector Quantization (VQ)* methods. This means that a visual codebook is built starting from the *LUV* color information of one or more selected key frames. In the case of audio instead, data being considered to build the codebook are normalized *Mel-frequency Cepstrum Coefficients (MFCC)* extracted from the audio track.

The outputs from the two parallel processes then enter the 'Scene Change' block, in which a further analysis on clusters is performed in order to construct the *Scene Transition Graph (STG)* [20], so as to enable *logical story unit* detection as well as certain events patterns inside scenes. In the end, the audio and visual results are combined together in order to produce an *MPEG-7* compliant *XML* description of the video document.

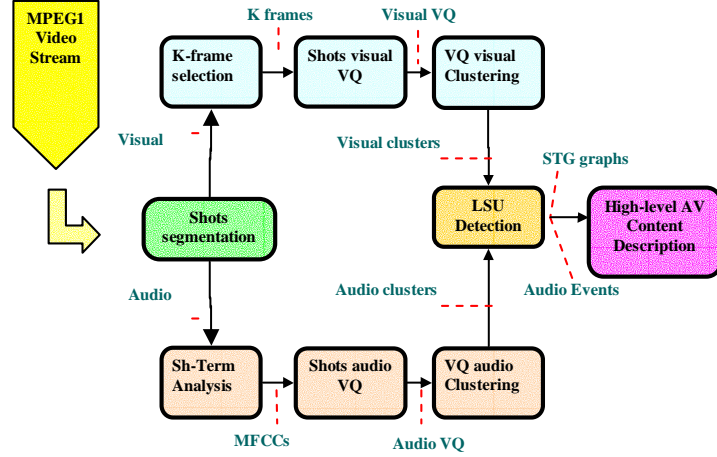


Fig. 1. System architecture

3 Visual Content Representation

Assuming that the shot decomposition is already given, we propose to use a *VQ* codebook distance metric to evaluate shot-to-shot dissimilarity. Later we demonstrate how a codebook of visual codewords can effectively represent also clusters of shots and allow evaluating cluster-to-shot and cluster-to-cluster dissimilarity.

To represent the visual content of each shot, the central key frame is chosen, but the procedure has been designed to be functionally scalable in order to be easily adapted to the case when more than one key-frame per shot is needed to gain a proper representation of the visual-content. In this case, techniques for k-frame extraction relying on camera motion activities estimation or the method proposed in [7] can be used.

3.1 Vector Quantization Codebook Generation

The selected keyframe is decoded as a still 352x288 image and represented in the *LUV* color space (*CIF* resolution). After sub-sampling by a factor 2 the keyframe in both directions (*QCIF* resolution) and after having applied a denoising gaussian filter, it is subdivided into blocks of 4x4 pixel dimension, in order to exploit color correlation of neighboring pixels. For each pixel belonging to each block, the three *LUV* components are concatenated to form a 48-dimensional vector p^i (3 components for 16 pixels). These vectors now constitute the inputs for the *VQ* codebook generation process [4] as shown in Figure 2. The procedure starts with a randomly generated codebook, then a variant [4] of the *Generalized Lloyd Algorithm* is applied; on the basis of the last obtained *nearest neighbor* partition, the centroids of each region can be refined iteratively until the distortion is below a predefined threshold. In the end the final code vectors (*i.e.* the centroids) will

correspond to the statistical density of the color features representing the visual content of the video shot.

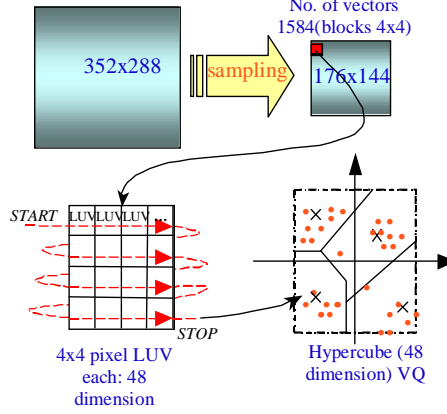


Fig. 2. Training set vector generation

The codebook thus generated for each visual shot contains:

- The c_j ($j = 1, 2, \dots, C$) codewords of D dimension ($D = 48$) which represent the centroids of each cluster in the final codebook. Removing the j for notational convenience, we have:

$$(\mu_1, \dots, \mu_D)_c = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{M_c} (p_1^i, \dots, p_D^i)_c}{M_c}$$

where M_c are the number of blocks within the partition of the codeword c ;

- The variances of the codewords obtained as:

$$(\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_D^2)_c = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{M_c} [(\mu_1 - p_1^i)^2, \dots, (\mu_D - p_D^i)^2]_c}{M_c}$$

- The normalized weights ($0 < w \leq 1$) of the codewords which estimate the probability mass associated to each cluster:

$$w_c = \frac{M_c}{\sum_{c=1}^C M_c}$$

3.2 VQ Codebook Distance Metric

Once the codebook for each shot is obtained, the distance between two shots A and B can be computed in two steps according to the ground measure proposed

in [1]. First, each codebook vector of shot A , $y_A = \{y_1, \dots, y_C\}$, is compared with those of shot B , $z_B = \{z_1, \dots, z_C\}$, to produce a

$$d_{i,j} = \frac{1}{D} \left[\sum_{h=1}^D \frac{1}{2} (\mu_{ih} - \mu_{jh})^2 + \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_{ih} - \sigma_{jh})^2 \right]$$

with $i, j = 1, \dots, C$. Then, the VQ codebook distance metric between shots A and B is defined as:

$$VQ_Dist(A, B) = \sum_{i=1}^C w \cdot \min_j (d_{i,j})$$

where the weight w is determined as $w = \max(w_i, w_j)$.

3.3 Time-unconstrained Clustering Procedure

This section details the novel visual clustering process, essential for further *LSU* segmentation, which relies on the possibility of defining VQ codebooks even for clusters. A time-unconstrained analysis approach is useful for many video programs like movies, since it groups shots into the same cluster based only on the visual contents without considering the timing of the context. The objective of such an approach is twofold. First, it doesn't set an *a priori* time limit for a scene extent (which is an issue, e.g., in [20]) and secondly, it can be useful for certain retrieval purposes, like user defined queries searching for repeats (for example a viewer may like to see all the scenes set in the *travel bookshop* location in the movie "*Notting Hill*").

At the beginning each cluster contains a single shot, so forming the *Original Shot Graph (OSG)*, in which nodes correspond to single shots, and edges indicate the transitions between shots. The VQ codebook distance metrics are then computed between all shots along the timeline, so as to explore exhaustively the visual similarities of the entire video, as shown in Figure 3. At each step, the

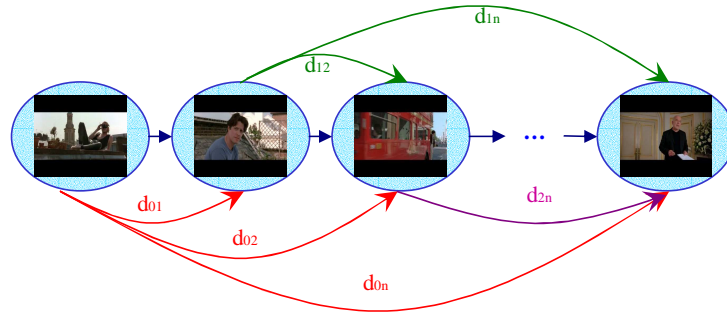


Fig. 3. *Original Shot Graph* and VQ distances between shots

algorithm merges a reference cluster R with its visually most similar test cluster T (*i.e.* the one having the minimal VQ distance metric), to form a new cluster R' in the temporal position of R . All the shots belonging to R and T , respectively,

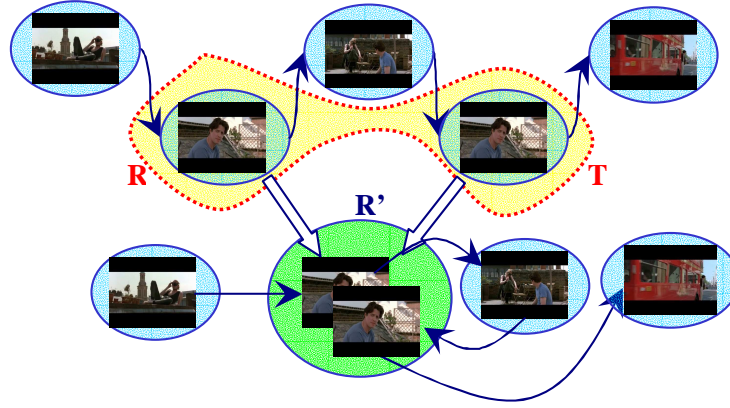


Fig. 4. Visual clustering: merge operation

then become the shots of the new cluster R' , and all transitions from/to R and T are properly updated to keep the correct temporal flow of the story. Figure 4 shows an example of such a merge operation. For the now combined cluster R' a new VQ codebook is needed to represent its content. The same process used before is applied: considering that the new cluster contains more than one shot, the keyframes corresponding to all the shots will be used for the codebook generation. Then, the VQ distances between R' and all the other clusters are updated ready for the next iteration.

On-line Statistical Analysis on VQ -cluster Distortion: It should be noted that while the VQ codebook generated at the *OSG* step is specific for each shot, the VQ codebook, which represents the visual content of a cluster with multiple shots, usually becomes less specific. This means that, for each shot, the best representing VQ codebook is the one prior to the first merging. From then on, the distortion of representing the original shot with its cluster VQ codebook is likely to increase. So, at each iteration k the newly formed cluster R'_k introduces a VQ distortion with respect to the *OSG* step, where each cluster contains only a single shot. This distortion can be computed, using the proposed VQ distance, as the sum of the distances between the codebook of the newly formed clusters R'_k and the codebooks of its shots s_i computed at the *OSG* step. The accumulated

distortion VQ_Err introduced from the beginning of the process until step k is:

$$VQ_Err(k) = \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{s_i \in R'_j} VQ_Dist(s_i, R'_j)$$

With the increase in a cluster's size, its VQ *codebook* is at the risk of losing the specificity in representing any of its constituent shots. To prevent this degenerative process, a statistical analysis is performed on the distortion generated by the latest merging step. At each iteration k , we compute the first derivative of the VQ *distortion* as,

$$\Delta VQ_Err(k) = [VQ_Err(k) - VQ_Err(k - 1)]$$

together with its mean μ and standard deviation σ with respect to the previous steps. Specifically, observing that after some initial steps (in which very similar shots collapse in the same clusters) the ΔVQ_Err tends to be gaussianly distributed, if:

$$\Delta VQ_Err(k) > \mu\{\Delta VQ_Err(j)\} + thrs \cdot \sigma\{\Delta VQ_Err(j)\}$$

with $j = 1, 2, \dots, k - 1$, and $thrs \in [2, \dots, 3]$, this means that the distortion introduced by the newly formed cluster is too large and that the VQ codebook fails to represent all the cluster components. In such a case, this latest merging between cluster R and T is discarded. Besides, these clusters are since locked, being excluded from any future clustering process and a new reference and test cluster, currently unlocked, are selected according to the next minimal value of VQ *distance metric*. The above iteration process is repeated until no more unlocked clusters are available for merging. Experimental trials demonstrated that in order to prevent a cluster codebook from growing too much and losing specificity, it is useful to lock the cluster at a certain size (*e.g.*, 12-15 shots in practice).

The discussion so far on the clustering process assumes the presence of similar shot structures along the sequence. This structure can be partially lost when the director relies on fast succession of shots to highlight suspense or to merely develop the plot of the movie. However, also in this case, the clustering algorithm gives proof of good performance, since usually shots belonging to the same LSU share at least the chromatic composition of the physical scene or the environmental lighting condition.

Intra-cluster Time Analysis The clusters generated from the unconstrained time analysis provide the first level representation of video content hierarchy. Each cluster now contains shots with high visual similarity to each other even if they may not be temporally adjacent, which, as discussed before, is already desirable for certain retrieval purposes. However, in order to separate one LSU from another, it is necessary that further analysis looks into the temporal locality of shots within each cluster so as to introduce a second level representation in

the cluster hierarchy. To do this, a temporal analysis is performed with a view to splitting each cluster into a few temporally consistent sub-clusters (see Figure 5) according to the following criterion: inside each cluster, two subsequent shots are considered to belong to the same sub-cluster if the temporal distance between them is less than a predefined interval D_W (in terms of number of shots).

The length of $D_W = 8$ shots chosen for our tests is not a critical value: it only determines the maximally explored range for a shot with similar visual content (e.g., in a pattern like **ABCDEFGA**..., it allows the two shots **A** to be included in the same sub-cluster), whereas similar shots usually occur quite closely to each other.

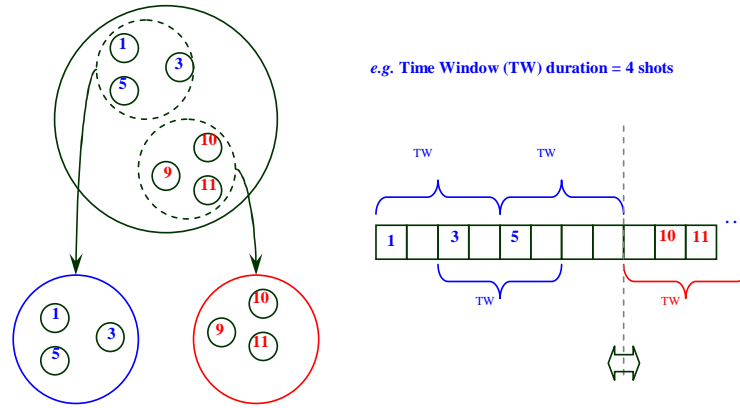


Fig. 5. Second level cluster hierarchy: time local sub-clusters

3.4 Scene Transition Graph

The *Scene Transition Graph (STG)*, originally proposed in [24], can be used to find the edges of *LSUs* and extracting the story structure without *a priori* knowledge of the semantics and flow of the video. It can be easily noted that the output of clusters and transitions from the above analysis forms a directed graph: it comprises a number of nodes (the local sub-clusters), each containing a number of visually similar and temporally close shots, and the edge between nodes (the time transitions between shots), representing the time evolution of the story. An important type of transition between two nodes is called "*cut-edge*" when, if removed, the graph leads to two disconnected sub-graphs. An *LSU* boundary is therefore defined to be at a cut edge.

As shown in Figure 6 each connected sub-graph after the removal of cut-edges represents a *Logical Story Unit* while the collection of all cut-edges represent all the transitions from one *LSU* to the next, thus reflecting the natural evolution of the video flow.

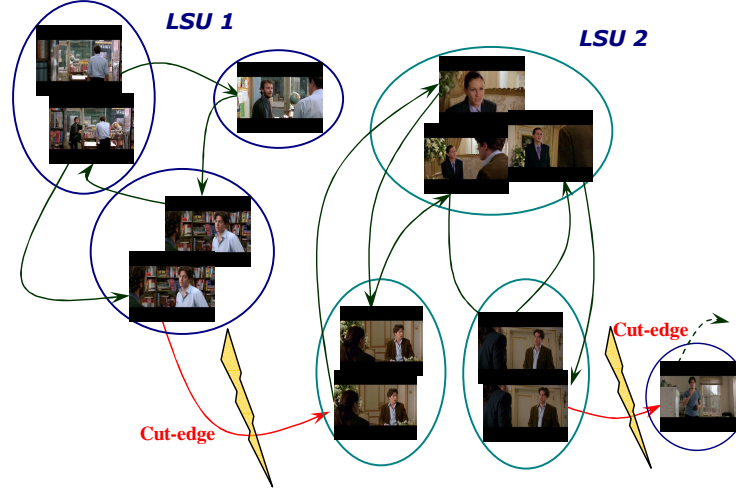


Fig. 6. *LSU* detection through *cut-edges*

4 Audio Signal Processing

Current approaches to audiovisual data segmentation focus more on visual cues than on associated audio cues. There is, however, a significant amount of information contained in audio, which sometimes can be complementary to the visual counterpart. In the current work we consider audio data as a support to visual processing results. It should be noted that the processing is not for classification purposes (*i.e.* decide whether it is music, speech, silence, noise, *etc.*), but for catching only variations of audio characteristics that may correspond to either an "*audio scene change*" or an important event in the story evolution that is underlined by a significant modification in audio properties.

4.1 Audio Content Representation

We first divide the audio data on the basis of the visual shot-based segmentation. Due to editing effects in a media file, some of the detected camera shots may be very short. In order to analyze a significant amount of audio information (*i.e.* avoiding short silent shots), if an audio shot lasts less than certain duration (*e.g.*, 2 s) it is merged with its preceding shot prior to being processed. A short-term spectral analysis is then performed to generate feature vectors characterizing each audio shot. First, the audio-shot is divided into audio frames locally stationary and lasting for a few tens of milliseconds. Then, for each audio frame, 19 *Mel-Frequency Cepstral Coefficients* (*MFCCs*) plus a sound energy are computed. The *MFCCs* are widely used in speech recognition applications and are also useful for modeling music [11]. In our work the audio data is sampled at

22.050 kHz; frames are 20 ms long weighted by a Hamming window with 50% overlapping, so that an output feature vector is obtained every 10 ms.

Vector Quantization of Audio Shots After weighting the *MFCCs* according to the relative energy of its audio frame (to remove the detrimental effects of silence), all the normalized *MFCC* vectors enter the same *VQ* codebook generation process as it was described in the case of visual information.

Measuring Distance Between Audio Shots Once the codebook for each audio shot is obtained, the distance between two different audio shots can be computed using the *Earth Mover's Distance (EMD)*. The *EMD* was used in [12] as a metric for image retrieval and in [11] to compare songs in an audio database for automatic creation of play-lists. The *EMD* can be viewed as calculating the minimum amount of work required to transform the codebook of one audio shot into another, using a symmetrical form of the *Kullback-Leibler's* distance. The problem can be formulated as a linear programming task for which efficient solutions exist.

4.2 Segmentation Procedure for Audio Scene

In general, an *audio scene change* is likely to occur when the majority of the dominant audio features in the sound change [16]. This can typically happen just before (or after) a new visual scene begins, or to underline important events taking place even inside a *logical story unit*.

Computing the *EMD* metric between codebooks of all consecutive audio shots, in general we can say that if the *EMD* is large, then the two shots are quite different in their underlying properties according to the defined set of low-level features. On the contrary, if the *EMD* value is small, the audio doesn't change appreciably between the two adjacent shots. An experimentally defined threshold is then used to detect peaks in the distance curve, so as to partition the audio shots into distinct audio clusters, as shown in Figure 7.

5 Audio Assisted Segmentation

This section deals with how audio and visual results deriving from previous analysis are combined to achieve a final description of the video structure. Basically, our shot-based approach avoids many of the alignment problems that affect many proposed solutions in the literature for joint audio-visual analysis and provides a simple method for synchronizing the results.

5.1 Scenarios for Audio-video Scene Combination

In the following we identify three possible audio-visual boundary conditions and the corresponding audio-visual events:

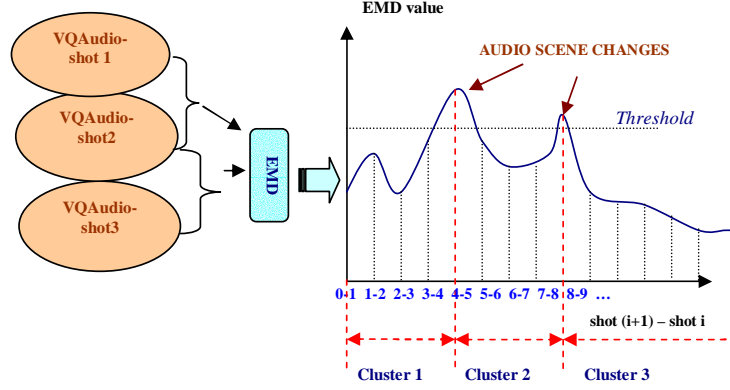


Fig. 7. Audio clustering based on *EMD*

- If a Visual Change (VC) happens (corresponding to a "cut edge") but no Audio Change (AC) occurs $=_i$ we set a simple *Logical Story Unit boundary* as shown in Figure 8.
- If an Audio Change (AC) happens but no Visual Change (VC) occurs $=_i$ we set an *Audio pattern hint inside the LSU* (as in Figure 9) often used by authors to underline a change in the mood or an important moment in the story evolution.
- If an Audio Change (AC) coincides with a Visual Change (VC) $=_i$ we set an *Audio-visual scene change* (Figure 10). Of course all audio-visual scene changes are also LSU boundaries, but the reverse is not true.

5.2 Pattern Investigation Inside Story Units

Using the *scene transition graph* framework exploited before, it is possible to further investigate the different patterns of actions inside the detected scenes, adding more semantic understanding and structural organization to the story. Searching for patterns allows distinguishing between three main types of actions: dialogues, progressive actions, hybrid [17] and generic actions, as shown in Figure 11. A dialogue is usually characterized by a simple repetitive visual structure like *ABAB* (or *ABCABC* in the case of three characters). A progressive action shows a linear evolution and it is characterized by a pattern like *ABCDE*. A hybrid action contains a dialogue sequence embedded in a progressive having a pattern such as *ABCDCE*. Looking at the type of action which is dominant inside each scene, it is possible to classify them as a dialogue, a progressive action or a hybrid one. All scenes not recognized as making part of the above categories are classified as generic.

With the classification into "*audio-visual scene changes*", "*LSU boundaries*", "*audio hints*" and the investigation of action patterns, a hierarchical organization of the story structure can be built as shown in Figure 12.

This is finally described in a *XML* file compliant with *MPEG-7* hierarchical segment decomposition, which is useful for developing effective browsing tools for navigation or summarization of the video document.

6 Experimental Results

Preliminary experiments on a prototype system have been carried out using video segments from two feature movies, namely, a 40 minute excerpt from the light comedy "*Notting Hill*" and a 17 minute one from "*A Beautiful Mind*". The codebook dimension chosen for the visual *VQ* has been set to 100, while for the audio the dimension 20 has been chosen, due to its lower dimensional space.

Video Program	#Shots	#Frames	#Clusters	#Subclusters
<i>Notting Hill</i>	521	59990	105	172
<i>A Beautiful Mind</i>	203	24818	19	33

Table 1. Trial Video Programs

6.1 Results and Observations

Although some *LSU* segmentation methods have been seen in literature, a common predefined ground-truth data set for comparison is still missing and the definition of *LSU* is sometimes difficult to be applied by individual movie viewers. Even if some work has been done in this direction [18], a systematic method for the evaluation of *LSU* segmentation is far from being accomplished. In Table 1 some details on the trial movies are given, together with the total number of clusters and sub-clusters, obtained as output of the clustering operation. Moreover in Table 2 and Table 3 we present some results in terms of the correctly detected scene changes and presence of false alarms with respect to a manually obtained scene segmentation. It should be noted that high values in false alarms (*i.e.* over-segmentation) are mainly due to the frequent adoption of "*establishing*" shots at the beginning of new scenes; this effect can be reduced by analyzing all *LSUs* formed by a single shot and merging their content with the subsequent *LSU*.

To better evaluate this work we resort to reference [18], which proposes some measures on the effectiveness of segmentation results that are more meaningful and reliable than the counts of correct detections and false alarms. In particular, measures of *Coverage C* and *Overflow O* on *LSUs* are computed; *Coverage C* is the fraction of shots of automatically generated *LSU* λ_j that overlap the most with the ground-truth *LSU* A_t , *i.e.*:

$$C(A_t) = \frac{\max_{j=0,\dots,n} \#(\lambda_j)}{\#(A_t)}$$

Type of Scene Change	Ground Truth	Correctly Detected	False Alarms
<i>LSU boundaries</i>	15	11	7
<i>AV Scene Changes</i>	7	4	2
<i>Audio Hints in LSU</i>	14	10	5

Table 2. Experimental results for "*Notting Hill*"

Type of Scene Change	Ground Truth	Correctly Detected	False Alarms
<i>LSU boundaries</i>	3	3	4
<i>AV Scene Changes</i>	5	5	0
<i>Audio Hints in LSU</i>	2	2	2

Table 3. Experimental results for "*A Beautiful Mind*"

while *Overlap O* measures the overlap of automatically generated *LSUs* λ_j covering Λ_t , with the ground-truth *LSUs* Λ_{t-1} and Λ_{t+1} :

$$O(\Lambda_t) = \frac{\sum_{j=0}^n \#(\lambda_j \setminus \Lambda_t) \cdot \min(1, \#(\lambda_j \cap \Lambda_t))}{\#(\Lambda_{t-1}) + \#(\Lambda_{t+1})}$$

These two measurements, aggregated over the entire tested video sequence as suggested in [18], are presented in Table 4, where very low values of *Overflow O* and the high scores in terms of *Coverage C* reveal the good performance of the proposed algorithm in segmenting *LSUs*.

Video Program	# <i>LSUs</i> Λ_t (GT)	# <i>LSUs</i> λ_j	Coverage <i>C</i>	Overflow <i>O</i>
<i>Notting Hill</i>	23	45	78.9%	3.9%
<i>A Beautiful Mind</i>	9	13	91.1%	0.0%

Table 4. Detected *LSUs* in terms of *Coverage* and *Overflow*

7 Conclusion

We have presented in this work a novel audiovisual analysis framework for *logical story unit* detection based on audio-visual *VQ* shot clustering and the progress reached so far for fulfilling such an objective. Extensive experiments on two feature movies have demonstrated the promising results of this approach. In fact, the current prototype system is able to recognize *logical story units* and to organize video content in a hierarchical structure, highlighting events, detecting special pattern along the sequence, whilst generating an *MPEG-7* compliant *XML* description of the sequence as output.

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